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ABSTRACT

This paper suggests some strategies for higher education in Asia and the Pacific in the context of ideological, societal, economic, and technological changes that have been experienced in the region during recent years. Some characteristics of the region and its socioeconomic characteristics are outlined, and the impact of changes on the area's systems of higher education are reviewed. The paper also explores some of the government steering policies that require different managerial techniques in the operation of higher education systems. Some examples are given of some systems of higher education in the region that have responded to new challenges in varying degrees. The paper concludes with suggestions for measures to take the higher education systems in Asia and the Pacific into the 21st century. An appendix compares some selected indicators for the countries in Asia and the Pacific Region. (Contains 26 references.) (SLD)

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Strategies for higher education in Asia and the Pacific in the post-Cold War era

Bikas C. Sanyal

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Bikas C. Sanyal

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Strategies for higher education in Asia and the Pacific in Post-Cold War era

by Bikas C. Sanyal

1. Introduction

As the title indicates, the purpose of this paper is to suggest some strategies for higher education in Asia and the Pacific in the context of ideological, societal, economic and technological changes that have been experienced in the region during recent years. We shall first describe the region of our concern and give its socio-economic characteristics, then analyze the impact the changes are having on the systems of higher education, various government steering policies requiring different managerial techniques in the operation of these systems. We shall provide examples of some systems of higher education of the region which have responded to the new challenges to varying degrees and shall conclude the paper by suggesting a series of measures to take the region's higher education system to the twenty-first century. We shall start with a brief overview of the region.

2. Characteristics of the region

The Asia and the Pacific region of UNESCO includes 39 Member States (see *Appendix*), with wide variations in their demographic, socio-economic and educational characteristics. The region is populated by 61 per cent of the world's total population of 5.6 billion, the smallest inhabited Member State of UNESCO, Niue, with only 2,000 people, and the largest Member State, China, with 1.2 billion people.

The countries and territories of the region belong to different categories. Not all of them adhere to UNESCO. Brunei, East Timor, French Polynesia, Guam, Macau, Marshall Islands, Nauru, New Caledonia, Pacific Islands (Palau), Singapore and Tokelau, are not Member States of UNESCO. Although geographically Armenia, Azerbaijan, Cyprus and Israel belong to this region, they are grouped into the European region by UNESCO. The Arab States belonging to this region are covered by the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in the Arab States (UNEDBAS).

Although our focus will be on UNESCO Member States, covered by the UNESCO Principal Regional Office in Asia and the Pacific (PROAP), non-member countries of the region will also be given due consideration.

The scope of our study is limited in that we must restrict ourselves to deriving some general principles and procedures in respect of the strategies which would apply to specific groups of countries/territories - we will not be able to focus on each individual country/territory. We should, however, keep in mind that any strategy for higher education of a country or territory has to take into account its special characteristics. The countries and territories of the vast region covered by UNESCO-PROAP constitute a highly heterogeneous group. They can be classified in different categories keeping in view their different characteristics: economic, geographical and demographic.

In respect of economic characteristics, some of them belong to the 'developed' category according to the World Bank, while others belong to the 'developing' category. It should be noted that, although the newly independent countries of Central Asia (Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan) have a very low per capita income, they are still included in the 'developed category' together with Australia, Japan and New Zealand, in the UNESCO Statistical Yearbook(1). On the other hand, the Republics of Korea and Singapore are included in the category of 'developing' countries. Again, in economic terms, certain of the countries are now going through a period of transition from command economy to market economy, an important post-cold war phenomenon. These are: Cambodia, China, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Mongolia, Viet Nam and the above-mentioned Central Asian countries.

In respect of geographical characteristics, in addition to what has been mentioned above regarding the coverage of our study, the countries have been grouped by UNESCO into four sub-regions: *Eastern Asia*, covering the countries from Myanmar in the West to East Timor in the East; *Southern Asia*, consisting of Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Iran, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka; the *Pacific sub-region*, covering Australia and Papua New Guinea in the West and the Cook Islands and French Polynesia in the East; and finally, *Central Asia*, consisting of the countries mentioned above.

In respect of population characteristics, all the countries of the Pacific sub-region, except Australia, New Zealand and Papua New Guinea, belong to the 'Small states' category. In addition, the Maldives in the Indian Ocean, with a population of less than a million, is also included in this group. Their island status also calls for special attention when designing a strategy for higher education.

Measured by the Human Development Indicator, this region includes one of the least developed countries of the world, Afghanistan, 169th in a list of 174, and one of the most developed countries of the world, Japan, the third, according to the 1996 Human Development Report of the UNDP(2).

The Islamic Republic of Iran had the highest annual average population growth rate of 4 per cent during 1980-1992 and Afghanistan and Samoa had the lowest, at 0.3 per cent. Overall, one could observe a significant decrease in this rate in recent years(3).

In South Asia, life expectancy increased from 44 to 60 years between 1960 and 1993, and in the East and South East Asia region and the Pacific, life expectancy was more than 85 per cent of that in the industrialized countries. Japan topped the world list with 79 years; Afghanistan was at the bottom, with 44 years in 1993.

In the age group 0-14 years, the dependency rate of the population (per cent of population outside of working age) varied from a maximum of 95 per cent in Samoa to 25 per cent in Japan and New Zealand; for the age group 65 and over, it varied from 17 per cent in Australia to 5 per cent in several countries, including Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Cambodia and Papua New Guinea. There is an increasing trend of dependency rate for the age group 65+ in this region.

The region had a total gross domestic product of $7 trillion in 1994 (26 countries reporting) – a share of 28 per cent of the world's $25 trillion (131 countries reporting)(4). The economy of the region grew at the fastest rate of all the regions in the world. The real gross domestic product per capita grew at a spectacular rate of 8.6 per cent in the year 1995, in the region's developing countries. The Central Asian countries in transition experienced negative growth rates, except for Mongolia(5). Gross national income per capita varied from US$34,630 in Japan, second in the world, to US$200 in Nepal(4). (Afghanistan did not report)

In 1995 the following countries had experienced growth rates of higher than 6 per cent in real GDP per capita:

Bhutan (7.0 %)	Korea (9.0 %)	Myanmar (7.2 %)
Cambodia (7.6 %)	Lao PDR (7.1 %)	Singapore (8.9 %)
China (10.2 %)	Malaysia (9.5 %)	Solomon Islands (6.9 %)
India (6.8 %)	Maldives (7.2 %)	Thailand (8.7 %)
Indonesia (8.1 %)	Mongolia (6.3 %)	Viet Nam (9.5 %)

These countries covered over 80 per cent of the region's population.

The United Nation's Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific forecasts that while the world economy will grow by 2.7 per cent per year during 1996-2000, Asia and the Pacific will have an average GDP growth rate of 6.7 per cent per annum. During the same period, the Central Asian economies in transition will have 3.3 per cent growth per year on average, compared with negative growth rates during the past five years. South Asian and the Pacific countries are expected to improve their economic lot as they put reforms in place. China, Malaysia, Philippines, Republic of Korea, Singapore, Thailand and Viet Nam will grow at average rates of 8.7 per cent, 8.3 per cent, 7.0 per cent, 6.6 per cent, 6.0 per cent, 7.3 per cent and 9.9 per cent respectively. These high growth rates are, however, less than those observed during the period 1991-1996(6).[1]

The structure of the economies has also undergone remarkable transformation. In 1980, 27 per cent of the economies of East Asia and the

1. The economic turmoil beginning July 1997 has changed the situation. This does not, however, have any reflection on the content of this booklet.

Pacific belonged to agriculture, 39 per cent to industry and 32 per cent to services. In 1994, the corresponding figures were 18 per cent, 42 per cent and 41 per cent respectively. In South Asia these shares changed from 39 per cent to 29 per cent, 24 per cent to 26 per cent and 35 per cent to 43 per cent. Figures for the Central Asian economies in transition are not available. But one would observe an accelerated growth of the services sector, private initiatives and the informal sector of the economies.

The region also experienced remarkable growth in the domain of education. In 1994 there was a total enrolment of 595 million, a share of 56 per cent of the world's total school population of 1.07 billion. However, only 34.4 per cent of the world's higher education enrolment belonged to this region, in spite of the fact that here, during the period 1980-1994, higher education enrolment doubled.

The enrolment rates (total enrolment as percentage of total population in the relevant age group) in higher education increased from 5.6 per cent to 8.8 per cent between 1980 and 1994 in Asia and from 22.9 per cent to 30.9 per cent in the Pacific region(1). Within each sub-region there are wide variations. For example, in the South-East Asian sub-region it varied from 1.5 per cent in Lao People's Democratic Republic to 50.8 per cent in Korea; in Central Asia from 21 per cent in Kyrgyzstan to 34 per cent in Kazakhstan. Some of the Pacific countries did not have any higher education enrolment at all, whereas New Zealand had the world's highest higher education enrolment rate of 59.8 per cent in 1994.

It is interesting to note that the population in the age group 20-24, relevant for regular higher education, is on the decrease in the Eastern and Central Asian and Pacific countries. It is also observed that the rate of increase of the population in this age group in Southern Asian countries is also falling. Other features of the higher education system of the region are:

1. Half of the Member States have introduced distance learning systems.
2. Most of them have introduced short-cycle programmes of higher education.
3. Private sector enrolment is rising (e.g. Cambodia, Korea and the Philippines have more students in the private tertiary sector than in the public universities; in China more than 1,000 institutions of higher education have been set up by the private sector, of which over 20 are recognized by the State Education Commission. However, total

enrolment in China's private system has not exceeded 5/6 per cent).

These changes have occurred within the context of broader changes in the external environment of higher education. These are: changes in the geopolitical order; changes in the societal domain; and changes in the economies along with accelerated scientific and technological development. These are dealt with below.

3. Changes in the geopolitical order

After the Second World War and until very recently, the world was broadly divided into two ideological philosophies, one following the capitalist system and the other socialist.

Recently we have observed the rejection of the communist ideology in the former Soviet Union and Eastern European countries. But this was the ideology which shaped the events of the twentieth century more than any other. With the ending of the Cold War, it is expected that large sums of money will be saved from military expenditure and directed towards the social sectors. The countries now have an opportunity to concentrate on the welfare of the human race, including the provision of education to all – one of the priority items on the agenda of international agencies. But simply to dismiss communism as an anti-democratic and repressive ideology would be a mistake. One cannot ignore the progress the human race made under certain communist regimes. Russia is free of serfdom and agricultural slavery – most of its people are literate, having access to free basic education. China can boast of its culture of equality, food self-sufficiency and a high rate of literacy (82 per cent as against India's 52 per cent in 1995). Most of the countries following this ideology had given priority to health care and education of their people – the two most important elements of human resources which the employers of a capitalist system are under no obligation to provide for. Communism, in theory, was a response to a passionate desire for justice which is needed now more than ever.

As one journalist observed: "As societies get richer, the contradictions of development become more acute. And at that point people start searching for something more"(7). Just as communism did not meet the economic needs or political aspirations of the people where it had its practical origin, so capitalism does not meet the spiritual needs or provide the basis for a sustainable culture.

Education then bears the responsibility for providing that 'something more' – the 'spirituality' which will emphasize peace and tolerance, equality among different social segments and justice. As market mechanisms take over in the mode of government, there is an urgency for a critical analysis of the relationship between money, power and alienation.

The ideological and political changes on the one hand, and the development of communication technology on the other, have resulted in remarkable changes in the societal domain, as discussed below.

4. Changes in the societal domain

The world has become a global village today with the development of communication technology. No country can remain isolated with its own systems of values, culture, tradition and social norms. It cannot sacrifice and abandon its own cultural identity either. The education system of a country cannot ignore this trend. The educational programmes can no more be defined in terms of the needs and aspirations of the country alone. Globalization of societies has called for an education system which has to reconcile the international system of values such as universal, moral and ethical considerations of tolerance, solidarity and human rights, with the local and national value system.

Education has to avoid being dominated by one powerful culture, e.g. that of the market-oriented society, as indicated above. It has to take into account the diversity of cultures(8). This requires changing the traditional goals of the education system and enlarging them to include education, training, social insertion, and preparation for work and for 'good citizenship'. Changes in the societal domain have led to economic changes, as will be discussed below.

5. Globalization of the economies

The phenomenon of globalization in the economies has been defined by Mr Jacques Hallak, Director, IIEP and Assistant Director-General, UNESCO, as follows:

> "*Globalization of economies means placing less importance on where natural resources are located and more importance on*

human resources; less importance on basic knowledge - still needed - more on behavioural/attitudinal skills; less importance on existing/prevailing divisions of labour among countries and more on ability to compete and take larger shares in the world economic activity; finally, less importance on the traditional segmentation of economic activities: primary, secondary and tertiary sectors; the distinction is now blurred by the growing integration of the processes of production, distribution and even consumption, while at the same time, processes need not any more be entirely carried through in one single location"(8).

This phenomenon has been affecting the content, structure and methods of higher education around the world.

6. Changes in scientific and technological development

The rapid development of new information and communication technologies (ICT) has changed our lifestyle and value system significantly by exposing the diversities of the societies to a large section of the population. It has also affected our education system, as has been noted by Mr Federico Mayor, Director-General, UNESCO:

"*Higher education – where the Internet originated – stands to benefit greatly from the development of the ICTs, which should enable it to become more open and relevant to the needs of individuals and society in the process. Applications such as interactive radio and television, video-conferencing, Internet-based virtual communities, World Wide Web publishing and CD-ROMS offer great challenges to teaching and learning but also the promise of a quantum leap in flexibility, accessibility and interactivity. Through ICTs, learning opportunities of unparalleled quality can be made available on a 24-hour basis, at many places, to many people*"(9).

Indeed, not only the system of higher education, but the governments themselves have to take advantage of these opportunities and become partners in making the higher education system responsive to these new challenges.

Their steering policies have to evolve with time and fit into particular contexts. This will be discussed in the following section.

7. Decision-making models in higher education

We can identify four types of steering policies of the governments, prevalent in different countries of the region:

- Systems operating under self-regulation with a broad framework of accountability with greater use of free market incentives, which are found in Australia, Malaysia, and the Philippines;
- Systems in transition from centralized planning to self-regulation, which are found in China, Mongolia and Thailand;
- Systems operating under self-regulation but experiencing difficulties, e.g. Cambodia, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Viet Nam, and the Central Asian countries;
- Systems under direct centralized planning and control, as seen in the Southern Asian countries and Japan.

Within each system, one could observe a mixture of the above steering policies.

These four types of steering policies have led to four types of decision-making models in the institutions of higher education.

The first and the longest surviving model is called the 'collegial' or 'consensus model' where:

(i) decisions are made by academia on a democratic basis through councils and/or committees based on long deliberations;
(ii) the head of the institution has less power and remains in his post for a short period; and
(iii) the administration is generally weak, providing mainly logistical support.

The implications of this model are slow and 'soft' decisions, individual academic freedom and absence of university-wide objectives.

The second model is called the 'political decision model' where:

(i) decisions result from permanent negotiations among the stakeholders (professors, students, administrative staff, government, business, local community, industry and labour unions);
(ii) the negotiations in this model may take more time and are more complex than in the first example; and
(iii) although university-wide objectives exist, individual academic freedom is less.

The third model is called the 'bureaucratic model'. Its characteristics are:

(i) nationwide systems for higher education, strict government rules for recruitment, promotion, salary structures and study programmes;

(ii) administration is strong: professors and heads of institutions are purely executives;
(iii) conservative, uniform and less innovative, it suffers from less initiative and from a prevalence of rules over results.

The fourth model is called the 'entrepreneurial model'. The institutions in this group:

(i) are entrepreneurial and autonomous;
(ii) supply services of teaching, research and consultancy and are paid by their customers, namely, students, government, enterprises, regional/local community etc.;
(iii) are competitive and are concerned with cost-effectiveness and accountability, multi-source funding, strategic alliances and use of modern management techniques.

In real life, an institution will make a combination of the above four models to suit its own context.

The different types of decision-making models call for different types of management practices. This is discussed below.

8. Management techniques in higher education

In many countries, reflection on the practice of higher education management has taken place within a context of an ideological shift with regard to public policy. Policy-makers have increasingly attempted to diminish state intervention and encourage entrepreneurial behaviour and accountability in the public sector. Experience in the USA provides a useful overview of a number of the concepts and techniques available to higher education management.

Particularly during the late 1960s and early 1970s, several systems for university management appeared in the discussion among practitioners and experts on higher education. These systems were derived from concepts developed either for state agencies or, more often, borrowed from those existing in the literature on private sector enterprises. The main focus of all these concepts is their emphasis on the clarification of institutional goals and objectives as a basis for the systematization of subsequent managerial action.

During the mid-1960s, the Planning, Programming and Budgeting System (PPBS) was imposed on all Californian state agencies, including higher education institutions. It prescribed a rather complex, linear procedure of establishing an institutional mission and detailed quantifiable targets to be implemented through annual budget specification. However, due to its complexity and high staff and computing costs, PPBS was quickly succeeded by Management by Objectives (MBO).

MBO was based on the assumption that the lack of clearly stated institutional goals constituted a major obstacle to increased institutional effectiveness. These institutional goals were first to be clarified by the academic community and then to be expressed in quantitative objectives to stand as standards of performance. Such standards should apply equally at the overall institutional level as well as to individual staff members.

MBO was followed during the mid-1970s by the Zero-based budgeting approach. This system required that the goals of an organizational unit should determine the budget and not the budget determine the goals to be achieved.

By the end of the 1970s, the concept of strategic planning first and management later, borrowed from the literature for business enterprises, came up in the discussion on higher education management. The concept arose within a context of diminishing public resources, the expectation of declining student numbers (in the USA) and, therefore, increased competition among institutions amounting to a threat to survival. The new and fundamental idea of strategic planning was that institutional planners and administrators should be continuously outward looking, assess changes in their relevant environments and plan for these changes with a long-term perspective.

Strategic planning can be described as having the following major components(10):

- systems/institutions identify external threats and opportunities through environmental scanning of political, economic, social, demographic and cultural change in the environment;
- systems/institutions undertake a continuous assessment of internal strengths and weaknesses with regard to research and teaching programmes, finances, facilities, resources, as well as management processes and institutional values;
- external opportunities and threats are related to the system's or institution's strengths and this two-fold evaluation process leads to the determination of the basic mission of the institution, that is, the statement of its basic purpose and its distinctiveness as opposed to other institutions of higher learning in the country and abroad;
- the mission is translated into long-term goals which are broad statements on the fundamental directions for the future; goals are then detailed in more operational and short-term objectives specifying clientele groups, the mix of programmes and services, as well as the comparative advantages of these over competing institutions;
- the 'mission statement' which summarizes these functions and priorities serves to inform potential clients (students and sponsors of research or consultancy) and government funding agencies of the particular niche that the system/institution fills in the national context.

Strategic planning and management is process oriented:

- it calls for participative approaches in the determination of the system's/organization's mission, goals and objectives, as well as the establishment of a set of measures by which the organization can test the achievement of these goals and objectives;
- major stakeholders are expected to be involved in the internal and external assessment process;
- institutions/departments may be requested to develop their own strategic plans which will be integrated into the overall strategic plan of the system/institution.

It is often emphasized that it is the process of strategic management which is more important than the written plan being developed.

Since the mid-1980s, the concept of Total Quality Management (TQM) has emerged. Again, it is a concept borrowed and adapted from private sector management. Total quality management for higher education institutions is based on many of the assumptions inherent in the strategic management concept. It takes up the concern for improved quality of higher education output, a concern widely expressed by many governments and their agencies and discussed in the literature on higher education management.

It emphasizes the importance of setting up a mission which describes, in a detailed manner, the organization's specific beneficiaries, their needs and the means to attain the best customer satisfaction. TQM, like strategic management, is process oriented. It is characterized by teamwork, systematic analysis of the problems, and the intensive use of information to achieve the objective of continuous improvement of services with regard to the beneficiaries' needs. Also, TQM is participative and stresses the need for staff development. It emphasizes the setting up of teams, including those which will actually implement the change or perform the work and those which share ownership in the process being planned or improved.

In the mid-1990s an additional set of tools was developed that 'measure or benchmark the progress and success' of the implementation of changes that are being introduced to achieve sustainable efficiency and productivity. This set of tools has led to the concept of 'benchmarking' which "is an ongoing, systematic process of comparing the work processes of one organization to those of another by bringing an external focus to internal activities, functions or operations"(11). The proponents of this instrument

argue that benchmarking:

1. Provides objective measurements for setting the initial values, setting the goals and monitoring the improvement.
2. Helps overcome resistance to change.
3. Provides a structure for external evaluation; and
4. evaluates new networks of communication between institutions of higher education for sharing experiences, leading to strategic alliance among them.

This attempts to answer questions such as: how well an institution is doing compared to others? how good the institution wants to be? which institution is doing the best? how does it do it and how can that be adapted to another institution? and how can the institution do better than it is presently doing?(11)

Criticisms of this technique have led to the concept of 're-engineering' which, instead of comparing performances among institutions, asks for "a fundamental re-thinking and radical design of business processes to achieve dramatic improvements in critical, contemporary measures of performance"(12).

Based on the benchmarking technique, the Balridge Office of the National Institute of Standards and Technology in the USA and the Academic Quality Consortium of the American Association of Higher Education (ASHE) are providing the motivated institutions of higher education "the opportunity to learn and work collaboratively by exchanging information and expanding on the assessment practices already being utilized"(13).

Whatever the technique used, governments are increasingly insisting on performance indicators to help them decide whether the substantial public funds being allocated to higher education are being used efficiently and effectively. Usually based on quantitative information, these indicators assist in checking on the appropriateness of the mission of a system or an institution and the extent of fulfilling the mission. All the techniques mentioned above could use these indicators. They can be used to show five aspects of the performance of higher education:

1. The quantitative dimensions of the main inputs (students, staff, building, equipment, books, money, etc.) into the system/institution.
2. Main outputs in quantitative terms (student places, graduates, research publications, patents, etc.).
3. The relationship between inputs and outputs (student-years per graduate, student/staff ratios, cost per graduate, research publication/patents per faculty member, so-called efficiency measures).
4. The quality of the system's/institution's activities (examination success rates, employability of graduates, impact of research on national and/or international academic community and/or productive/management process); and
5. processes within the system/institution that may be amenable to management decisions (amount of service teaching by one institution/department for another, average length of time faculty takes to return student assignment, degree of student satisfaction with instructions, etc).

We shall give below examples of these practices being followed in some of the countries of the region. Our list is not exhaustive.

9. Changes in higher education management practices

It is clear that management of a system or an institution is significantly influenced by the type of governmental steering policy in force. In addition to setting policy, certain governments have become increasingly concerned not only with outputs, such as the number and quality of graduates, but also with institutional processes in general and with management methods. Thus institutions in these countries have been obliged to implement change at a relatively rapid rate in many spheres of their activity.

Certain common changes in management can be seen as follows:

- gradual devolution of responsibilities from central authorities (ministries, buffer bodies) to institutions;
- a more powerful role for central university authorities in resource management and in orienting and controlling department activities; vice-chancellors are more like chief executives and may be supported by deputies with responsibilities for the main resources of finance, staff, and space;

- a smaller decision-making body at the apex, including external participants;
- strategic planning;
- mission statements to clarify the objectives of the system;
- attempts to introduce 're-engineering' in higher education systems;
- restructuring of departments into larger groups to form viable decision-making and administrative units;
- devolving the budget to decision-making units and the use of the budget to control unit costs and ensure rational use of resources, including teachers;
- appraisal and accountability measures in a variety of forms to cover teaching, research, services and management;
- additional units for industry/community liaison and public relations for fund-raising activities;
- mergers, branch campuses or antennae to create institutions of an economic size.

According to the type of government steering policy, the changes listed above may be present to a greater or lesser extent. However, they are most often evident in self-regulated systems. Universities have responded to changes in their specific environment in diverse ways. Therefore, it is important to consider the experiences of systems in their specific context. In the following sections we shall discuss these changes observed in some countries of the region within the framework of the four types of government steering policies, described earlier.

9.1 Higher education management in systems under self-regulation and accountability

In systems under self-regulation, the responsibility for the management of resources and accountability rests at the level of the institution.

Australia

In Australia, the 1987 Dawkins and 1995 Hoare reforms stipulated the following:

- a unified national system;
- amalgamation to form larger units;

- an increase in the provision of student places and improved flow rates;
- an emphasis on science, technology and business administration;
- efficiency and effectiveness.

Through a process of mergers, 17 universities and 36 colleges of advanced education have been reduced to 36 universities with an average enrolment of approximately 20,000. Amalgamation has necessitated new governing bodies and regulations, as well as the combining of administrative units, computer centres and staff policies. Strategic planning is now routine. Vice-chancellors have acquired chief executive status. Departments have been rationalized, sometimes into four or five major groups headed by pro vice-chancellors specifically in charge of management. Compliance with national priorities has been obtained by tying funding to educational profiles negotiated every three years.

It is interesting to note that the results have been mixed:

- in the short-term, mergers cost rather than save money; but in the long-term economy is achieved, interdisciplinarity is facilitated and quality improves;
- an amalgamation of different cultures, different rules and infrastructures, sensitive policies and administrative systems has been difficult;
- expansion has taken place in the cheaper courses;
- academics complain of overcrowding and heavy teaching loads;
- there is a homogenization taking place, due to competition to produce the stipulated research profiles and graduates.

In respect of finance, the Federal Education Minister introduced some changes in August, 1996. These changes have seen the introduction of 'efficiency dividends', or percentage cuts to operating grants of the order of 5 per cent over three years, which are likely to be ongoing; and an increased emphasis by the federal government on the private benefits of higher education. The practical impact of this new emphasis is that student contributions have been increased (with HECS (the Higher Education Credit System); HECS is a student charge either paid up front or paid through the taxation system once a student earns a certain amount, initially at a flat rate of 22 per cent of total cost, increased recently and differentiated, based on course costs and potential future earnings of the graduate), charges raised

and opportunities and incentives have been widened to allow universities to charge some groups of domestic students full fees, while all foreign students are fee-paying.

It is inevitable that the higher education sector in Australia will experience further deregulation and we will see a progressive weaning from government support and influence. Universities will need to turn for survival to a society which is itself undergoing rapid changes. In some respects, governments at the state and federal level have lessened control over the sector. This is particularly so as the former advanced education sector, which was subject to close involvement by the states, combined with universities to achieve substantial autonomy. There has been a constant testing of the balance between institutional autonomy and government involvement and regulation. Australia's higher education sector had its roots in the British system, and state and federal governments were well aware of their limitations in direct university management. Nevertheless, over the years they have exercised considerable influence through setting legislative parameters and using financial carrots and sticks. Examples of the former included the establishment of a national climate for industrial relations, restrictions on student intake characteristics through profile negotiations, and legislation on matters such as age and sex discrimination and occupational health and safety. The exercise of financial influence was particularly noticeable in areas such as quality assurance, where institutions were in effect rewarded for doing what they already ought to have been doing.

The introduction of performance-based funding for research has also had powerful repercussions for the way in which many institutions manage and reward their internal research efforts. The new federal government has signalled that it intends to further the trend towards decreasing intervention in university affairs while expecting increased efficiency, quality and accountability from institutions. In line with previous governments, it will expect universities to achieve these results through adoption of modern management practices(14).

Malaysia

(a) The cases of the University of Agriculture, Malaysia (UPM) and the National University of Malaysia (UKM)

The University Pertanian Malaysia (UPM) has adopted a strategic plan

with its mission statement, elaborating on five critical scenarios (changing market demand, competition, finance, wider accessibility of university education and quality and relevant education). Based on these scenarios, the Ministry developed various objectives aimed at achieving the mission of the University "to be a leading centre of learning and research, contributing not only towards human advancement and the creation of knowledge but also to nation building"(15).

The following objectives of the University are linked to the scenarios mentioned above: 20 per cent of UPM's curriculum in all subjects was to consist of managerial courses by 1997; it was to expand programmes related to the service industry, establish strategic alliances with 15 corporate bodies, export at least five academic programmes to other countries, produce at least five patent discoveries every year beginning in 1996, offer three programmes on the distance learning mode by 1997 with an intake of 400 students, and initiate professional development programmes by 1996.

UPM also envisaged that 80 per cent of its students would come from the top 50 per cent of successful applicants, postgraduate students would make up 20 per cent of UPM's total enrolment and come from the top 5 per cent of graduates. In respect of research, UPM's objective is to capture 30 per cent of the public sector research and development funding by the year 2000 and to receive 50 per cent of its total budget from the private sector. In the same context, it planned to set up seven centres of excellence. In respect of services, UPM intended to establish a university business centre by 1996.

To achieve the above objectives the University developed nine strategies in the field of academic programmes, research, consultancy, students and staff, university organization, finance, facilities, strategic alliances and entrepreneurship. Plans of action were also formulated in line with the above objectives. These related to the creation of a new and positive image of the University, and re-engineering of its academic programmes to make them more flexible and easier to venture into new areas. The university structure is to be modified to respond to the managerial changes.

The University has adopted a new law to become a corporate body. In the future the University plans to transform into a complete private body where, in the long-term, there will be ownership in the share capital by the public.

A series of problems which the University has to tackle in implementing its plans are identified as follows:

- cultural shock among the students and academic community;
- adjustment to the new financial system;
- reorganization of the incentive structure for the staff, which is at present inadequate;
- changing the attitudes of the different stakeholders of the University in its transformation.

(b) Academic staff management in Universiti Kegangsaan (UKM)

In respect of staff management the National University of Malaysia (UKM) now has the power to decide on recruitment, promotion and evaluation of its staff. The University is planning to decentralize some of these aspects to the faculty. The University has established a calendar for measuring the performance of each staff member and it has also established norms for teaching and other functions of the academic staff as well as for promotion to different higher levels. For example, lecturers are required to publish at least five publications in international journals or one textbook before being promoted to associate professors. For the latter, to become a professor, he would need at least seven to eight publications as well as the recommendation of a panel of international referees.

The 1992 salary scheme has increased the benefits of the academic staff substantially. Today an excellent professor can earn the same salary as the Vice-Chancellor in addition to being entitled to unlimited research funds, and sabbatical leave of nine months after five years of service. The scheme also provides special incentives for staff development(16).

The Philippines

(a) The case of a private institution of higher education: The Lyceum of the Philippines

The Lyceum of the Philippines, a stock enterprise, can now charge tuition fees without any limit. The Institution follows a strategic management approach. The most important characteristic of this Institution is that it pays its teachers on an hourly basis. Full-timers have to work for at least 24 hours a week and there is a large number of part-time teachers.

Newly recruited teachers have to undergo a probation period of six consecutive semesters before tenure can be granted.

The Institution provides additional incentive schemes for the teachers. The staff are promoted based on points earned according to criteria set in the faculty classification and promotion plan. The Institution fosters cordial and harmonious relationships between itself and the faculty association through a collective bargaining agreement. This helps to improve the working conditions of the staff. The Institution has also devised a performance appraisal system involving the academic staff which is based on the efficiency ratings, attendance record, evaluation by students and supervisors and results of departmental examinations where applicable. It also has a system of staff development, through in-house workshops and programme-specific activities.

The Institution has listed a series of measures which could further improve its operation. These are as follows:

- incentives to encourage scholarly research and publication of research results;
- improving the quality of staff by upgrading the entry requirement to masters degree;
- increased pay for full-timers and market-based payment to high quality part-timers;
- revision of the current reward system, faculty classification and methods of promotion, especially for flagship courses;
- further improvement of dialogue and consultation among faculty and administration.

According to the head of the Institution, "faculty unrest should not be treated as a legal problem or a personnel problem, but a total management problem". Student relations should be treated as 'customer driven'. The Institution envisages recruitment of professorial lecturers to teach basic subjects to the first- and second-year students. For an Institution like this, good management of staff becomes essential in the Philippines today because of the deregulation of the 'education industry and heavy competition among the institutions to recruit and retain good staff(17).

9.2 The universities in transition from a centrally planned system to self-regulation

China

The following reforms have taken place in China during the last 10 years(18):

(i) reform of the educational governance by allowing 22 private higher education institutions (HEIs) to be recognized by the SEDC, and over 1,000 non-state HEIs have been approved by the provincial education departments as of November, 1996;
(ii) reform of management has been introduced by institutionalizing inter-university co-operation, devolving responsibilities to local authorities, encouraging university/industry collaboration, merging uneconomic and ineffective institutions and appreciating the benefit of decentralized management;
(iii) diversification of funding sources for education;
(iv) promotion of placement of graduates through a dialogue between employers and graduates;
(v) attempts at balancing the demand and supply of graduates through the rationalization of enrolment, and between disciplinary structures and reforming educational content to fit socio-economic needs; and
(vi) improvement of institutional management through reinforcing staff development and logistic support.

The idea of corporatization of universities is well known to China, as one report states(19).

> "*Different sectors, such as the Railway Authorities, set up their own institutions of higher education and universities are expected to find about 50 per cent of their own funding. The involvement of 'university in business' has been a practice of universities in China for quite a while now, with many universities having their own 'business operations'. However, these business activities do not influence the functioning of the university as an institution of higher education, with its traditional education aims. University-run businesses merely provide the financial backing, resources for training, as well as marketing outlet for staff research*".

Thailand

In Thailand, the Ministry of University Affairs plans, monitors and evaluates the functions of the universities, provides the funding, sets academic standards and manages the personnel since each staff member of the public university is part of the civil service.

In 1992, the Ministry delegated curriculum approval authority to each university council. It acts as the accreditation body for the universities. The Ministry has considerable authority in matters of personnel planning, recruitment and promotion and makes the final decision on granting professorships. The Ministry is also responsible for monitoring the quality of private higher education institutions through established criteria.

Despite the efforts made to move the universities away from bureaucracy, the bureaucratic atmosphere has penetrated the universities since the government still has its hold over the university operation. In spite of government intervention, the public universities in Thailand have been quite innovative. These innovations were possible because of external pressure, particularly from the macro-planning of the central body on higher education and the government. A few innovations also emerged from internal pressure: for example, the introduction of a credit system, computerized administration, and so on.

A new breed of university is being developed in Thailand. The Suranaree University of Technology has been set up with a special statute, free from government control but under government supervision, in which the staff are not civil servants. Salaries are fixed by negotiation and the salary level is competitive with the private sector. The quality of the staff is very high (75 per cent of its staff hold a Ph.D.) and the study programme is quite flexible, which allows students to work on sandwich programmes between the industry and the University. This University, which was set up in 1993, is expected to start a new phenomenon in the field of higher education in Thailand(20).

Tajikistan

(a) The case of the Technological University of Tajikistan

Although most of the universities of the Central Asian countries are

going through their transition from central planning to self-regulation with many difficulties, the Technological University of Tajikistan is an exception, and provides an interesting example.

The University was established in 1990, with 21 teachers and professors and 285 students. In 1995 it had 155 teaching staff and 1,500 students, mostly in professional subjects. The University maintains detailed records of the students' performance, who follow mostly vocational-oriented programmes. The University has links with other universities of the Commonwealth of Independent States as well as with institutions in the Western industrialized countries.

The Government of the Republic covers 50 per cent of the expenses of the University. The teachers of this University get 1.5 times the salary paid in other institutions. Ten per cent of the students pay their own fees, enterprises pay for 50 per cent of students, government pays for 20 per cent and the remaining 20 per cent is paid by the University. The students sponsored by the University are distributed among the enterprises after graduation and the cost of their education is recovered from them. Sometimes recovery may exceed the actual cost, depending upon the market demand for the graduate.

Due to the departure of the Russians, the country suffers from a lack of high-level manpower in critical areas. The disciplines taught in the University follow the market demand and therefore the University can function almost like a commercial enterprise. Although a semi-private University, the Rector or the Chancellor is appointed by the President of the Republic. The Chancellor takes all the vital decisions in respect of the University, appoints the Pro-Rectors, Heads and Deans of the faculty and gives them proper responsibilities(21).

9.3 The higher education system undergoing transition from central planning to self-regulation with difficulties

As indicated above, most of the members of this group belong to the Central Asian sub-region. Cambodia, Lao People's Democratic Republic, and Viet Nam also belong to this group.

The higher education systems of these countries are having to face the following challenges:

1. their content of higher education has to be radically changed, with less emphasis on political education and more on market-oriented subjects;
2. the structure of higher education will have to change by abolishing or merging small uneconomic and unpopular institutions and disciplines;
3. the role of the state is being cut drastically along with its financial contribution;
4. admission policies are being changed from full state control to state support, together with enterprise sponsorship, fee payments and student loans;
5. privatization of higher education, leading to a wide variation in the quality of input, process and output, needing a strong regulatory mechanism at the state level;
6. the institutions themselves have to be concerned with the placement of the graduates; and, finally
7. the system will have to look for new sources of funding and do 'more with less'. Although the state will still remain the main source of income, additional sources have to be added to make up for the state's reduced contribution. These will include: industry user tax, user fee, revenue from institutional activities, community contribution and foundations with foreign and national participation.

We give below two examples:

Uzbekistan

(a) The case of the University of World Economy and Diplomacy

Established in 1992, the University of World Economy and Diplomacy is an institution that prepares highly skilled personnel in the fields of international relations, intergovernmental and foreign economic relations, diplomacy, international law and international journalism.

The most interesting feature of the staff structure of this University is the proportion of female teachers, which increased from 43 per cent in 1993 to 68.4 per cent in 1995. The student/staff ratio is 5:1; the student/non-academic staff ratio is 4:1. In 1995, 11 per cent of the teachers only were on tenure appointment. All the rest are recruited for one year; they are re-appointed on the basis of their performance. Seventy-five per cent of the staff are full-time; 25 per cent on contract. Thirty per cent of teachers' contracts were not renewed in 1994.

A teacher's salary on average was 60 per cent of an average state-employed teacher; 41 per cent of an average industrial worker and 39 per cent of an average construction worker. Of course this lower salary is compensated for by free housing, subsidized electricity and communal services and exemption from taxes on retirement. In September 1995, teachers' salaries were increased by 50 per cent(22).

Viet Nam

The decision-making structure of Viet Nam's higher education is changing rapidly with, for example, the diversification of financial resources, the merger of uneconomic higher education institutions, and the academic staff being allowed to accept additional jobs in order to improve living conditions. The University has also recently introduced doctoral programmes in science. All institutions have now established a training department for their staff, a facility and financial department, a personnel department, an administrative department and a foreign relations department under the direct guidance of an institutional management board. The specialties in different areas have also been broadened, keeping in view the needs of the market economy.

The Ministry has set up a system to collect information for managerial purposes. Computerization has been introduced to some areas. The government is implementing a very large project on information technology for the year 2000. Education is at the top of the priority list.

In spite of recent liberalization, institutions of higher education in Viet Nam are still under the strict control of the Ministry of Education. For example, the annual budget is decided by the Ministry of Education and Training and the University can only use the money within the limit and following the fixed decisions of the given budget. The institutions cannot make any changes to suit current demands.

The most important aspect of higher education development in Viet Nam is the increasing role of the private sector. The institutions of higher education in Viet Nam still suffer from poor management, poor facilities,

lack of qualified staff and poor and irrational management of finance(23).

9.4 Management of higher education in systems under centralized planning and control

Under this type of system, as might be expected, initiatives to improve the efficiency of management are taken mainly at the centre. Some governments have been quite aware of the deficiencies of their centralized bureaucracies but nevertheless seem unable or unwilling to implement any radical or wide-scale reform. India is one example.

India

The Policy on Education of 1986 officially encouraged decentralization and the involvement of client groups in higher education, but the structures to accomplish the change do not exist. Teaching staff frequently have second jobs and are not interested in the management of the university. Political, trade union and other interests pull in different directions, and many teachers are available for only half the working day. Vice-chancellors may be appointed and dismissed on political grounds and, in any case, may have to spend a lot of their time visiting government offices to accelerate payment of financial allocations. The situation in Pakistan and Bangladesh is somewhat similar.

The Indian plan for autonomous colleges has only been implemented in a few institutions and the general opinion is that the New Policy on Education has failed to make much impact. Nevertheless, the government is continuing to press for change and in 1993 announced two big concessions to assist universities in income generation:

- whatever income they are able to generate will no longer be deducted from the government/state grants given to them;
- tax exemption of 100 per cent will be given to industry for donations made to universities.

The only condition is that such generated income should not be used for salaries.

The University Grants Commission is looking into the financial management of universities and intends to propose some flexible norms to guide management, particularly as regards ratios for non-teaching staff. Control of quality is being tightened(24).

Japan

In Japan, the Order of Imperial Universities of 1919 set the management mechanism of a university assigning the responsibility of the President, the Hyougikai (the university committee), and the Kyoujukai (the faculty committee) while permitting the establishment of private universities. After the Second World War, the reform of higher education was guided by basic principles of democratization. The higher education system was integrated with the overall education system; no university was allowed to have its campus outside of the provincial border and several HEIs were integrated into one comprehensive university, at least one in each province. The faculty meetings now included assistant professors, some lecturers and research associates. The appointment of the President and the professors remained at the hands of the highest authority, i.e. the government. Although the public universities were entirely financed by the state, the imperial universities were favoured in respect of financial allocation. Decentralization of management of the universities from the national authorities to the institutes was resented by the academic community itself for fear of loss of academic freedom, lack of proper funding, interference of local politics, loss of national character and lack of managerial capacity at the local level. The involvement of non-academic agencies (industry, business, etc.) in the university decision-making was strongly objected to by the academia. During the period of rapid expansion in economy and education, in spite of strong resistance, some industrial concerns got involved in university decision-making (e.g. Tsukuba). The number of professors was increased and more than one professor could teach the same subject. In 1992 the government removed some of the legal restrictions on the universities and encouraged them to adjust to new social requirements, especially in the conduct of self-evaluation and a closer flow of information. International co-operation and involvement is now more frequent. However, conservatism still prevails in the higher education system of Japan(25).

The above description of the cases demonstrates that selected universities of Thailand, Malaysia and Central Asia have adopted radical changes through the process of re-engineering.

There is a need for increased emphasis for radical changes, as the Director-General of UNESCO suggests:

> "*In all countries, higher education is having to rethink its role in a context of very rapid social and technological change. Social pressures and the pull of the labour market have resulted in widespread diversification, leading to great complexity of structures, programmes, student populations and funding arrangements. Increasingly, the universities must respond to pressures to become more 'open', to reach out to those traditionally excluded from higher education, to cater for the demand for lifelong learning, making use of the rapidly expanding possibilities of distance education*"(8).

To respond to the above challenge, 10 strategies are being suggested in the following concluding section of this paper.

10. Suggestions of ten strategies for the management of higher education

(1) The importance of management capacity in the system of higher education

One of the major lessons is that governments neglect the importance of management capacity in institutions at their peril. The introduction of necessary reforms and economies may be hindered by a lack of expertise to implement directives, by inertia or even by outright resistance. This needs to be corrected.

(2) The need for management expertise at the government level

Another major lesson is the importance of higher education management expertise at government level. In those countries with centrally

controlled systems, institutions must wait for the government to issue its directives or seek approval. Ministries should ensure their capacity to give adequate support in all domains; this means that they should play a facilitating as well as an intervenient role.

(3) The need to pool experience at the international or regional levels

The amount of support in the form of expertise and funding given in certain Western industrialized countries by governmental agencies for successful management reform has been extremely high. In this respect, groups of countries could profit from the setting up of regional forums to pool their expertise and experience in the field of improving higher education management. Associations of Universities have such an objective and an impetus needs to be given to their work. UNESCO-PROAP's programme of Regional Co-operation in Higher Education has made a significant contribution in this respect. The programme on Institutional Management in Higher Education of the International Institute for Educational Planning has also treated this topic in three sub-regional workshops, covering over 50 countries around the world, including all the countries of the Asian sub-region.

(4) Internal understanding and acceptance

The proposed changes must be seen to be necessary and should be introduced in a comprehensive and phased package. The integrated nature of higher education activities and management should be taken into account, so that funding, structures and external pressures are all taken into consideration. This will ensure the best chance of predisposing the higher education system to accept change.

(5) Analysis of management structures and procedures

Institutional management practices have an impact upon all the departments of the institution and can ensure that the appropriate actions are taken. Ideally, reforms should be preceded by an analysis of management structures and procedures in order to ensure that they are adequate.

It is essential to have a sufficiently powerful executive level to ensure overall institutional planning, co-ordination, evaluation and accountability.

(6) Better linkages between the institution and its environment

Another means of opening up the higher education system and reinforcing the executive level has been the use of Governing Boards containing a majority of external members as steering committees. This allows institutions to have a stronger connection with their environment. Governments can create legislation that will stimulate universities to form linkages with the external environment.

(7) The need for accountability measures

As far as strategies to improve higher education management are concerned, it would seem that it has been realized by governments and the public in many countries, that not enough emphasis has been put on accountability measures.

Evaluation on its own without follow-up exerts insufficient pressure on the institution to change.

Government agencies, buffer organizations and good executive-level management can ensure accountability, providing that the necessary data are available and are reliable. We should emphasize the importance of performance indicators. Data are very important: relevant, reliable and timely data have been the basis of successful development and change in both self-regulatory and centrally planned systems. Considerable work has been done on indicators from which all countries can benefit.

(8) The role of the state

With the paradigm shift in the role of higher education in the society due to the changes in its external environment, the state's role will go through radical changes. It will have to delegate autonomy to the system and the institutions but retain regulatory and monitoring functions through the development of performance indicators and accountability measures,

establishment of an accreditation system and delineation of financial responsibilities. In respect of the latter, the state has to provide incentives to the higher education system to generate income and reduce the state burden.

(9) Transformation of higher education management and the role of re-engineering

Tavernier(26) has foreseen the transformation of higher education management in the twenty-first century in respect of its characteristics, as shown in the following chart.

Transformation of higher education management

Characteristics	Old paradigm	New paradigm
Strategy	Planned	Entrepreneurial
Structure	Hierarchy	Network
System	Rigid	Flexible
Staff	Title + Rank	Helpful
Style	Problem-solving	Transformational
Skills	To compete	To build
Shared-value	Better-Sameness	Meaningful-Difference
Focus	System/Institution	Institution/Individual
Source of strength	Stability	Change
Leadership	Dogmatic	Inspirational

(10) Maintenance of momentum

Once transformation has begun, measures should be put in place to ensure that momentum is maintained. Deadlines, feedback and targets should be established. It should be noted that the length of the time period for consolidation should not be allowed to be a resistance manoeuvre.

Similarly, governments in their role as client and supervisor should try to establish a policy of continual search for improvement. Systems that have remained unchanged for a long period of time tend to perceive demands for reform as a disruption, rather than as part of the normal pattern of governance to keep the system up to date. The experiences of Southern Asia underline this fact. Adaptation and acceptance of change will be an increasingly critical factor in institutional efficiency in the twenty-first century.

The world will be watching the changes being adopted in the higher education system of this region today to take it to the twenty-first century – the century of Asia and the Pacific.

Appendix
Selected indicators for the countries in Asia and the Pacific Region

Country	Population in millions (mid-1994)	Growth rate of population	HDI	HDI rank	Tertiary enrolment ratio	GNP per capita	Life expectancy	Growth rate Real GDP per capita
Afghanistan	18.9	0.3	.229	169	1.7		44	
Australia	17.9	1.5	.929	11	40.9	18.000	78	3.2
Bangladesh	117.8	2.1	.365	143	3.9	220	56	4.7
Bhutan	1.6	2.1	.307	159	–	400	51	7.0
Cambodia	10.0	3.1	.325	156	1.4	250	52	7.6
China	1208.8	1.4	.609	108	3.8	530	68	10.2
Cook Islands	.019				–			
Fiji	.771	1.4	.853	47	11.9	2.250	71	2.4
India	918.6	2.1	.436	135	6.0	320	60	6.8
Indonesia	194.6	1.9	.641	102	9.3	880	63	8.1
Iran	65.8	4.0	.754	66	12.7	1.940	67	2.8
Japan	124.8	0.5	.938	3	29.1	34.630	79	0.9
Kazakhstan	17.0	1.0	.740	72	33.6	1.160	70	-8.9
Kiribati	.075	1.7		–	–	740		2.5
Democratic People's Rep. of Korea	23.5	1.8	.714	83			71	
Republic of Korea	44.6	1.1	.886	29	54.8	8.260	71	9.0
Kyrgyzstan	4.7	1.9	.663	99	20.1	630	69	1.3
Lao People's Dem. Rep.	4.7	2.8	.400	138	1.5	320	51	7.1
Malaysia	19.7	2.6	.826	53	9.6	3.480	71	9.5

Appendix (continued)

Country	Population in millions (mid-1994)	Growth rate of population	HDI	HDI rank	Tertiary enrolment ratio	GNP per capita	Life expect ancy	Growth rate Real GDP per capita
Maldives	.246	3.2	.610	107	–	950	62	7.2
Mongolia	2.4	2.6	.578	113	13.6	300	64	6.3
Myanmar (Union)	45.6	2.1	.451	133	5.1		58	7.2
Nepal	21.4	2.6	.332	151	4.8	200	54	5.8
New Zealand	3.5	0.8	.927	14	59.8	13.350	76	2.2
Niue	.002				–			
Pakistan	136.6	3.5	.442	134	2.9	430	62	4.5
Papua New Guinea	4.2	2.2	.504	126	3.2	1.240	56	-4.7
Philippines	66.2	2.3	.665	95	26.8	950	66	4.8
Samoa	.169	0.3	.700	88	–		68	6.7
Solomon Islands	.366	3.5	.563	118	–	810	70	6.9
Sri Lanka	18.1	1.5	.698	89	6.1	640	72	5.4
Tajikistan	5.9	2.9	.616	105	24.8	360	70	-12.5
Thailand	58.2	1.7	.832	52	20.6	2.410	69	8.7
Tonga	.097	0.4		–	–	1.590		
Turkmenistan	4.0	2.5	.695	90	21.8		65	-10.4
Tuvalu	.010	1.0		–	–			
Uzbekistan	22.3	2.5	.679	94	31.8	960	69	-1.8
Vanuatu	0.161	2.5	.562	119	–	1.150	65	3.2
Viet Nam	72.9	2.2	.523	121	3.2	200	65	9.5

Appendix (Source):

Source: Population data are from UNESCO Statistical Yearbook, 1996, its growth rate and life expectancy from the World Education Report, 1995, UNESCO, Paris.
Human Development index (HDI): Human Development Report, 1996, UNDP, New York.
HDI is based on three indicators: life expectancy at birth, educational attainment measured by a combination of adult literacy (two-thirds weight) and combined primary, secondary and tertiary enrolment ratios (one-third); and standard of living measured by real GDP per capita adjusted for purchasing power parity (PPP).
GNP per capita: World Development Report, 1996, World Bank, Washington, D.C.
Tertiary enrolment Ratio (TER): UNESCO Statistical Yearbook, 1996. Data relates to 1994 or nearest year available.
Real GDP per capita growth rate: World Economic Outlook, October, 1996, International Monetary Fund, Washington, D.C.

For tertiary enrolment ratios, insignificant figures have been noted as '–'.

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